

Final Exam., Mathematical Methods Course

24th November, 2 p.m. - 5 p.m.

1. a) An $n \times n$ matrix A satisfies a polynomial equation

$$p(A) = c_0 I_n + c_1 A + c_2 A^2 + c_3 A^3 + \dots = 0,$$

where I_n is the $n \times n$ identity matrix. If B is connected to A via a similarity transformation, $B = S^{-1}AS$, show that $p(B) = 0$.

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- b) If $n = 2$, argue that $\exp(A)$ can be written as a linear combination of I_2 and A (you may use Cayley-Hamilton theorem). In this case, if the eigenvalues of A are x_1 and x_2 and $x_1 \neq x_2$, show that

$$\exp(A) = \frac{x_1 e^{x_2} - x_2 e^{x_1}}{x_1 - x_2} I_2 + \frac{e^{x_1} - e^{x_2}}{x_1 - x_2} A.$$

What about the case when $x_1 = x_2$?

7+2

a) If $B = S^{-1}AS$, $B^n = S^{-1}AS \cdot S^{-1}AS \cdot \dots \cdot S^{-1}AS = S^{-1}A^n S$

using $I_n = S^{-1}I_n S$, $\Rightarrow p(B) = S^{-1}(c_0 I_n + c_1 A + c_2 A^2 + \dots)S = S^{-1}p(A)S = 0$

b) Since a $n=2$ matrix A satisfies $(A - \lambda_1 I_2)(A - \lambda_2 I_2) = 0$ if λ_1, λ_2 are its eigenvalues (Cayley-Hamilton theorem), $\Rightarrow A^2 = (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 I_2$
→ ①

Therefore any power $A^n, n \geq 2$, can be written as $c_{1,n} A + c_{2,n} I_2$

$\Rightarrow e^A = \sum_n \frac{1}{n!} A^n$ can be written as $\lambda_1 A + \lambda_2 I_2$

If A has non-degenerate eigenvalues, by a similarity transform we can diagonalize A : $B = S^{-1}AS = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$

$\Rightarrow$ By similar argument as in a), $e^B = \lambda_1 B + \lambda_2 I_2$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} e^{\lambda_1} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{\lambda_2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_1 \lambda_2 + \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

②

$$\Rightarrow \left. \begin{aligned} \lambda_1 \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 &= e^{\lambda_1} \\ \lambda_1 \lambda_2 + \lambda_2 &= e^{\lambda_2} \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= \frac{e^{\lambda_1} - \lambda_2}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} \\ \lambda_2 &= e^{\lambda_1} - \lambda_1 \frac{e^{\lambda_1} - e^{\lambda_2}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} \\ &= \frac{\lambda_1 e^{\lambda_2} - \lambda_2 e^{\lambda_1}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} \end{aligned}$$

Now, say, $\lambda_2 = \lambda$, $\lambda_1 = \lambda + \varepsilon$, and we want to take $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 \Rightarrow \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{\lambda} (e^{\varepsilon} - 1)}{\varepsilon} = e^{\lambda}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_2 &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\lambda + \varepsilon) e^{\lambda} - \lambda e^{\lambda + \varepsilon}}{\varepsilon} = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\lambda + \varepsilon) e^{\lambda} - \lambda e^{\lambda} (1 + \varepsilon)}{\varepsilon} \\ &= (1 - \lambda) e^{\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^A = e^{\lambda} A + (1 - \lambda) e^{\lambda} I_2 \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

This result is trivially correct when A is diagonalizable, for then

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} = \lambda I_2 \text{ in any basis } \Rightarrow e^A = e^{\lambda} I_2.$$

What if A is not diagonalizable? Then limit from the $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$

non-degenerate case is non-trivial; S becomes ill-defined as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

Is $\textcircled{2}$ still true?

In this case, writing $A = \lambda_1 A + \lambda_2 I_2$, we can transform to the Jordan form $B = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}$ and $e^B = \lambda_1 B + \lambda_2 I_2 \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$

$$\text{Now } B^2 = \begin{pmatrix} x & 1 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x & 1 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 & 2x \\ 0 & x^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$B^3 = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 & 2x \\ 0 & x^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x & 1 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x^3 & 3x^2 \\ 0 & x^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{and, if } B^{n-1} = \begin{pmatrix} x^{n-1} & (n-1)x^{n-2} \\ 0 & x^{n-1} \end{pmatrix},$$

$$B^n = B^{n-1} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x & 1 \\ 0 & x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x^n & nx^{n-1} \\ 0 & x^n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^B = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} B^n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \begin{pmatrix} x^n & nx^{n-1} \\ 0 & x^n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n & \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n x^{n-1}}{n!} \\ 0 & 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} e^x & e^x \\ 0 & e^x \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{From (3) then, } \begin{pmatrix} e^x & e^x \\ 0 & e^x \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 x + \lambda_2 & \lambda_1 \\ 0 & \lambda_1 x + \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_1 = e^x, \lambda_2 = (1-x)e^x \Rightarrow \text{eqn. (2).}$$

Notes a) In part a), many of you have used arguments like if $p(A) = 0$, $p(A)$ is the characteristic ~~eqn~~ polynomial of A and $p(\lambda) = 0$. Since $B = S^{-1}AS$ has same eigenvalues, it has same characteristic eqn. and therefore $p(B) = 0$. This is not correct because I never said $p(A)$ is the characteristic

polynomial (defined by the polynomial $p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$).

A matrix can satisfy $p(A) = 0$ ~~even though~~ though $p(\lambda)$ is not the characteristic polynomial. [Can you give a simple example?]

Also, if the eigenvalues of a matrix B satisfy $p(\lambda) = 0$, that does not imply $p(B) = 0$ [unless $p(\lambda)$ is the characteristic polynomial $\det(B - \lambda I)$].

b) Some of you started with eqn. (1) and calculated e^A directly. Though the algebra is a bit longer, that is perfectly all-right if you can manage to get a general form of A^n (One of you managed to do it).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{From (1): } A^2 &= (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 I_2 = \frac{\lambda_1^2 - \lambda_2^2}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} A - \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2 (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} I_2 \\ A^3 &= \frac{\lambda_1^2 - \lambda_2^2}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} \left((\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 I_2 \right) - \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2 (\lambda_1 - \lambda_2)}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} A \\ &= \frac{\lambda_1^3 - \lambda_2^3}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} A - \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2 (\lambda_1^2 - \lambda_2^2)}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} I_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{If } A^{n-1} = \frac{\lambda_1^{n-1} - \lambda_2^{n-1}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} A - \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2 (\lambda_1^{n-2} - \lambda_2^{n-2})}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} I_2,$$

$$\begin{aligned} A^n &= \frac{\lambda_1^{n-1} - \lambda_2^{n-1}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} \left((\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)A - \lambda_1 \lambda_2 I_2 \right) - \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2 (\lambda_1^{n-2} - \lambda_2^{n-2})}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} A \\ &= \frac{\lambda_1^n - \lambda_2^n}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} A - \frac{\lambda_1 \lambda_2 (\lambda_1^{n-1} - \lambda_2^{n-1})}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2} I_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Rightarrow e^A &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^n = I_2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^n \\
&= I_2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \frac{x_1^n - x_2^n}{x_1 - x_2} A - I_2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (x_1^{n-1} - x_2^{n-1}) \frac{x_1 x_2}{x_1 - x_2} \\
&= \frac{e^{x_1} - e^{x_2}}{x_1 - x_2} A + I_2 \left[1 - \frac{x_1 x_2}{x_1 - x_2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} (x_1^{n-1} - x_2^{n-1}) \right]
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
[] &= 1 - \frac{1}{x_1 - x_2} \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x_1^n x_2 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x_2^n x_1 \right) \\
&= 1 - \frac{1}{x_1 - x_2} \left[(e^{x_1} - 1) x_2 - (e^{x_2} - 1) x_1 \right] \\
&= \frac{x_2 e^{x_1} - x_1 e^{x_2}}{x_1 - x_2}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^A = \frac{e^{x_1} - e^{x_2}}{x_1 - x_2} A + \frac{x_2 e^{x_1} - x_1 e^{x_2}}{x_1 - x_2} I_2$$

The $x_1 = x_2$ case can be done either using ~~L'Hopital's rule~~ The $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ limit, or starting from (2) and using similar manipulations as above.

2. By calculating the secular determinant, find the eigenvalues of

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(i.e., $X_{ij} = 1$, $i = 1 \dots n$, $j = 1 \dots n$).

What is the Jordan canonical form of this matrix?

8+2

Eigenvalues : Sols of the eqn $\det |X - \lambda I| = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

adding columns 2...n to 1st column

$$\det = \begin{vmatrix} n-\lambda & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ n-\lambda & 1-\lambda & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ n-\lambda & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (n-\lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & 1-\lambda & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & \dots & 1-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

Subtracting 1st column from columns 2...n

$$\det = (n-\lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 1 & -\lambda & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & 0 & -\lambda & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & 0 & 0 & \ddots & -\lambda \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = (n-\lambda) (-\lambda)^{n-1}$$

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$\Rightarrow$ eigenvalues of X are n , and 0 with $(n-1)$ fold degeneracy.

Now X is Not Symmetric $\Rightarrow$ can be diagonalized by orthogonal transformation

$$\Rightarrow \text{Jordan form} = \text{diagonal form} = \begin{pmatrix} n & & 0 \\ & 0 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

Notes

Some other tricks: $X^2 = nX$ (simple matrix multiplication)

$\Rightarrow$ The eigenvalues should satisfy $\lambda^2 = n\lambda$ (as obtained by acting on suitable eigenvectors)

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = n, 0$$

Now ~~the~~ trace = sum of eigenvalues = n

$\Rightarrow$ eigenvalues = n , and 0 with $(n-1)$ fold degeneracy

Even simpler is just to realize that the eigenvectors are

Simple to get: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the eigenvector with eigenvalue n ,

and $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ are $(n-1)$ L.I.

eigenvectors with eigenvalue 0

[one of you ~~did~~ did it this way]

Since you get all the eigenvectors, Jordan form = diagonal form.

3. Consider matrices of the form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} m & k \\ 0 & n \end{pmatrix}$$

where m, n, k are integers mod 5, and integer operations (addition / multiplication) are defined mod 5.

a) Show that the set of all A form a vector space.

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b) Let G = set of all A such that $m, n \neq 0$. Show that G forms a group under matrix multiplication. What is the order of the group?

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c) Is G simple/semisimple?

2

a) First we convince ourselves that $F = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$, with addition and multiplication defined mod 5, form a field:

$$c \oplus c \text{ mod } 5 \in F \quad c \odot c \text{ mod } 5 \in F$$

multiplication, addition satisfy commutativity and associativity

$$0 \oplus c = c \quad \forall c$$

$$\exists -c : \begin{array}{c|cccc} c & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline -c & 0 & 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{array} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$c \odot 1 = c \quad \forall c$$

$$\text{for } c \neq 0, \exists c^{-1} : \begin{array}{c|cccc} c & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ \hline c^{-1} & 1 & 3 & 2 & 4 \end{array} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

$$c \odot (c_2 \oplus c_3) = c \odot c_2 \oplus c \odot c_3$$

Now it is easy to show that $A = \begin{pmatrix} m & k \\ 0 & n \end{pmatrix}$ form vector space over this field F , when addition defined as

$$A_1 \oplus A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} m_1 \oplus m_2 & k_1 \oplus k_2 \\ 0 & n_1 \oplus n_2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ where } \oplus \text{ is of same form}$$

Commutativity and associativity of vector addition follow immediately

$$\text{null vector} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad -A = \begin{pmatrix} -m & -k \\ 0 & -n \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } -m \text{ etc defined in (1)}$$

and properties of scalar multiplication follow immediately.

b) $G = \{A\}$ with $m, n \neq 0$

$$A_1 A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} m_1 & k_1 \\ 0 & n_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m_2 & k_2 \\ 0 & n_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m_1 m_2 & m_1 k_2 \oplus k_1 n_2 \\ 0 & n_1 n_2 \end{pmatrix} \in G$$

$$\text{identity} : I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{inverse} : A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} m' & k' \\ l' & n' \end{pmatrix} \text{ such that } A^{-1} A = I = \begin{pmatrix} m' m & m' k + k' n \\ l' m & l' k + n' n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{since } l' m = 0, l' \neq 0 \Rightarrow m' = m^{-1}, n' = n^{-1} \text{ (as defined in (2))}$$

$$m' k + k' n = 0 \Rightarrow k' = -n^{-1} m' k \Rightarrow A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} m^{-1} & -n^{-1} m^{-1} k \\ 0 & n^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Easy to check that $AA^{-1} = I$

$\Rightarrow$ inverse exists

Associativity follows trivially

$\Rightarrow G$ forms a group.

Order = # elements = 80 since m, n can take 4 values & k , 5 values.

(9)

c) $H = \begin{Bmatrix} m & 0 \\ 0 & m \end{Bmatrix}$, $m = 1, 2, 3, 4$ form an abelian invariant

Subgroup of G as G is not simple / semisimple.

Notes

This was a verbose question, I have given marks to ~~everybody~~ people who more or less made the correct points.

Wanted to stress a couple of points, though.

i) To have the ^{multiplicative} inverses, it was important that 5 is a prime. If you had operations mod 6, for example, then ~~you~~ you ~~you~~ would not have a group (no inverse of $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$, for example).

ii) Very few of you got c) correct. ~~So~~ Please try to think it through.

4. Let $f(x, y)$ be a complex function of the real variables x and y , and let $\operatorname{Re} f = u$, $\operatorname{Im} f = v$. Find the necessary relations (equivalent of Cauchy-Riemann conditions) between partial derivatives of u and v for f to be a differentiable function of $z^* = x - iy$.

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For $f(x, y) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$ to be a differentiable fn. of $z^* = x - iy$, derivatives $\frac{\partial}{\partial z^*}$ taken along different directions in $x-y$ plane should agree.

Now varying z^* such that y is fixed,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z^*} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x+\Delta x, y) + i v(x+\Delta x, y) - u(x, y) - i v(x, y)}{\Delta z^* = \Delta x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}$$

varying z^* such that x is fixed,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial z^*} &= \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{u(x, y+\Delta y) + i v(x, y+\Delta y) - u(x, y) - i v(x, y)}{\Delta z^* = -i \Delta y} = i \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) \\ &= -\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

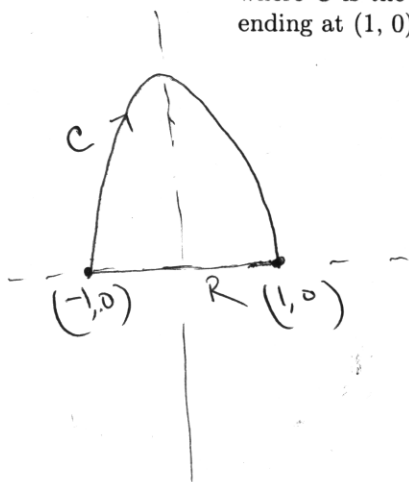
These are the equivalents of the C-R conditions.

5. Find the value of the integral

$$\int_C \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} dz$$

where C is the semi-ellipse $9x^2 + y^2 = 9$ in the upper half-plane ($y > 0$), starting at $(-1, 0)$ and ending at $(1, 0)$.

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Let us call c' , the closed contour $C+R$
where R is the straight line from $(1, 0)$
to $(-1, 0)$

$$\Rightarrow \oint_{c'} dz \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} = -2\pi i \cdot \text{sum of residues enclosed by } c'$$

[- sign because c' is traversed clockwise] (*)

$$z^4 - 16 = (z + 2i)(z - 2i)(z + 2)(z - 2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{only pole of } \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} \text{ within } c' \text{ is at } z = 2i, \text{ residue} = \frac{2i}{4i \cdot (2i)(2i)(2i)} = -\frac{1}{16}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \oint_{c'} dz \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} &= -2\pi i \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{16}\right) = \frac{\pi i}{8} \\ &= \int_C dz \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} + \int_R dz \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } \int_R \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} dz = - \int_{-1}^1 dx \frac{x}{x^4 - 16} = 0 \quad (\text{odd fcn. on even interval})$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_C dz \frac{z}{z^4 - 16} = \frac{\pi i}{8}.$$

Notes

Many of you have missed the minus sign at $\otimes$,

or, taken the contour anticlockwise but then didn't correct for the fact that you've done the integration on $-C$ rather than C .

6. a) Find the singularity structure of the function

$$f(z) = \frac{\log z}{z^{1/4}(1+z)}$$

in the complex plane. Find the residues at the poles.

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b) Use the above result to evaluate the integral

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{\log x}{x^{1/4}(1+x)}.$$

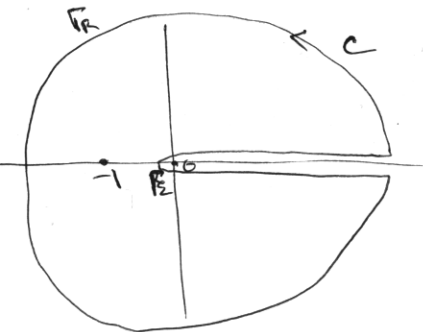
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a) $f(z)$ has branch points at $z=0$ and ∞ , and a simple pole at $z=-1$. ~~Residue at~~

Taking the branch $0 \leq \arg z < 2\pi$ (branch cut along +ve real axis),

pole is at $z = e^{i\pi}$ and residue = $\frac{i\pi}{e^{i\pi/4}}$
 $= \frac{i\pi}{(1+i)/\sqrt{2}} = \frac{i\pi(1-i)}{\sqrt{2}}$
 $= \frac{\pi(1+i)}{\sqrt{2}}.$

b) Let us calculate $I = \oint_C dz \frac{\log z}{z^{1/4}(1+z)}$, where C is the



Contour shown.

using Cauchy formula, $I = \frac{2\pi i \cdot \pi(1+i)}{\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2} \pi^2 (1+i)$

$$\text{Now } I = \int_{\Sigma}^R dz \frac{\ln z}{z^{1/4}(1+z)} + \int_{\Gamma_R} dz \frac{\ln z}{z^{1/4}(1+z)} + \int_R^{\Sigma} dz \frac{\ln x + 2\pi i}{x^{1/4} e^{i\pi/2}(1+x)} + \int_{\Gamma_{\Sigma}} dz \frac{\ln z}{z^{1/4}(1+z)} \quad (14)$$

where Γ_R : circle of radius R traversed anticlockwise, and Γ_{Σ} : circle of radius Σ at origin, traversed clockwise.

$$\int_{\Gamma_R} dz \frac{\ln z}{z^{1/4}(1+z)} = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{R e^{i\theta} i d\theta \cdot (\ln R + i\theta)}{R^{1/4} e^{i\theta/4} (1 + R e^{i\theta})}$$

$$\left| \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{R e^{i\theta} i d\theta \ln R}{R^{1/4} e^{i\theta/4} (1 + R e^{i\theta})} \right| \leq 2\pi \cdot \frac{R \ln R}{R^{1/4} |R-1|} \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2\pi \ln R}{R^{1/4}} \rightarrow 0$$

$$\left| \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{R e^{i\theta} i d\theta \cdot i\theta}{R^{1/4} e^{i\theta/4} (1 + R e^{i\theta})} \right| \leq \frac{4\pi^2}{R^{1/4} |R-1|} \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

$$\int_{\Gamma_{\Sigma}} dz \frac{\ln z}{z^{1/4}(1+z)} = - \int_0^{2\pi} \Sigma e^{i\theta} i d\theta \cdot \frac{\ln \Sigma + i\theta}{\Sigma^{1/4} e^{i\theta/4} (1 + \Sigma e^{i\theta})} \xrightarrow{\Sigma \rightarrow 0} - \Sigma^{3/4} \int_0^{2\pi} (\ln \Sigma + i\theta) i d\theta \rightarrow 0$$

$\Rightarrow$ In the limit $\Sigma \rightarrow 0, R \rightarrow \infty$

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{\ln x}{x^{1/4}(1+x)} - \int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{(\ln x + 2\pi i)}{x^{1/4} \cdot i \cdot (1+x)} \\ &= (1+i) \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx \ln x}{x^{1/4}(1+x)} - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx \cdot 2\pi}{x^{1/4}(1+x)} \\ &= \sqrt{2}\pi^2 (i-i) \text{ using (1)} \end{aligned} \quad \longrightarrow (2)$$

Now evaluating $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{1/4}(1+x)}$ following the same steps, we get

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{1/4}(1+x)} + i \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{1/4}(1+x)} = 2\pi i \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2}}{1+i} = \pi(1+i)\sqrt{2} \Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{1/4}(1+x)} = \sqrt{2}\pi$$

Putting This in (2), we get

$$(1+i) \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx \ln x}{x^{1/4} (1+x)} - 2\pi \cdot \sqrt{2}\pi = \sqrt{2}\pi^2 (i-1)$$

$$\Rightarrow (1+i) \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx \ln x}{x^{1/4} (1+x)} = \sqrt{2}\pi^2 (i+1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx \ln x}{x^{1/4} (1+x)} = \sqrt{2}\pi^2.$$

Notes i) ~~this~~ This is how I had done it, but it is not the smartest way. At Eq. (2), you can match the imaginary part of both sides

to get $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx \ln x}{x^{1/4} (1+x)} = \sqrt{2}\pi^2$ (Some of you did it this way - thanks!)

ii) Quite a few of you got to Eq. (2), but then just dropped

$\int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{2\pi}{x^{1/4} (1+x)}$. Don't ~~drop~~ drop it just because it looks troublesome!

iii) ~~A~~ A surprising no. of people got confused evaluating $(-1)^{1/4}$.

Once you've chosen the branch to be $\theta = 0 - 2\pi$, -1 is $e^{i\pi}$ (no

more multivaluedness), and $(-1)^{1/4}$ is uniquely defined: $e^{i\pi/4} = \cos \frac{\pi}{4} + i \sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}}$.

7. Let $u(x, y) = x - (x^2 - y^2)/2$. Find a real function $v(x, y)$ such that $f(z = x + iy) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$ is analytic, and $f(0) = 0$.

Find the saddle points of $f(z)$. Find the directions along the saddle points such that u is nearly constant and v has a local maximum (along the trajectory) at the saddle point.

5+5+5

v has to satisfy C-R conditions:

$$\left. \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right|_z = \left. \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right|_y = 1 - x \Rightarrow v = y(1 - x) + g(x)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right|_z = -\left. \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right|_x = -y \Rightarrow v = y(1 - x) + c$$

$$f(0) = 0 \Rightarrow c = 0 \text{ and } f = x - \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - y^2) + iy(1 - x) \\ = z - \frac{1}{2}z^2$$

$$\text{Saddle point: } \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \right|_{z_0} = 1 - z_0 = 0 \Rightarrow z_0 = 1$$

Expanding to quadratic order around saddle point,

$$f(z) = f(z_0) + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} \right|_{z_0} (z - z_0)^2 + \dots$$

$$f(z_0) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2} \right|_{z_0} = -1$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}(z - z_0)^2 + \dots$$

For the trajectory through z_0 such that u is nearly constant and v has a maximum, we look for trajectories like $f(z_0) - i \frac{t^2}{2}$, t real

$$\Rightarrow (z - z_0)^2 \sim it^2 \Rightarrow z - z_0 \sim t e^{i\pi/4}$$

$\Rightarrow$ the required trajectory is $1 + t e^{i\pi/4}$,

~~also~~

Notes i) Many of you immediately recognized u to be $re(z - \frac{1}{2}z^2)$,
and bypassed C-R route. Cool!

ii) Very few people (only one?) got the trajectory correct.

Many of you instead found the trajectory where u has a maximum
and v is nearly constant. Please read the question!